PARTICIPATORY EVALUATION METHODS

COURSE MANUAL

COADY INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE
Colin Stuart
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COMMUNITY HEALTH CELL
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and unemployed persons. Our evaluation and research must include the participation of the poor.

These three values are central to all our planning and evaluation. We can see them as key evaluation questions, which should be constantly asked;

Is what we are doing contributing to transformation of systems so that everyone has more secure access to life needs?

Is what we are doing going to assure conservation, regeneration and diversity in the natural world? Are the organizations we build and work with able to continue and be self-reliant?

Is what we are doing increasing the power of the poor over their own lives?

I. SOME DEFINITIONS.

1. WHAT IS PARTICIPATORY EVALUATION?

Participatory evaluation is a tool for people to:

-learn from their own experience and the experience of others, and
-make judgements and <u>decisions</u> about;

-the social and/or institutional context in which they live or work, (needs assessment, PRA etc.)
-the work they plan to do (feasibility, baseline studies)
-the work they are doing (monitoring)
-and the outcomes of that work. (impact or terminal evaluation)

2. TYPES OF EVALUATION ACCORDING TO FOCUS

There are many different types of evaluations according the topic or area they focus on. Some of the most common include:

1. *Project Evaluations.* These are evaluations that look at a specific set of objectives, activities and or outcomes of a project. A project is limited by time and resources, and should have clear objectives to be accomplished within the specified time and resources.

2. *Program Evaluations.* These are evaluations that look at a program of an organization. They can incorporate one or more project evaluations and can focus on a selected aspect of projects or programs or on many aspects. eg. the outcomes, the impact, the management, etc.

3. *Institutional or Organizational Evaluations.* These are evaluations which focus on how well the organization is functioning to achieve its goals and objectives. It is usually focused inward on the processes of the organization; eg. staff relations, management, financial control.

4. *Training Evaluations.* These evaluations will concentrate on understanding the conditions, process, outcomes, and impact of learning and teaching.

5. *Environmental Assessments or Evaluations.* The focus of these evaluations is usually on the local or regional natural ecology and the relationship between human activity and the natural world. The most common environmental evaluation is often called an "environmental impact assessment". Usually this is an evaluation of the anticipated impact of a project and is done before the project or program proceeds.

3. TYPES OF EVALUATION ACCORDING TO STAGE AND RELATIONSHIP TO PLANNING

Evaluation takes place at every stage of the project/program cycle.

WHEN EVALUATION TAKES PLACE IN THE PROJECT CYCLE.	WHY YOU EVALUATE (decisions)	EVALUATION NAME
1. Before starting a program or project	What is the situation, problems, needs? Should we respond/act? ------->	-RAPID ASSESSMENT -SOCIAL/GENDER ANALYSIS -NEEDS ASSESSMENT -PRE-PROGRAM ASSESSMENT
	If "yes" ---------->	-BASELINE STUDY
2. During and immediately after program design	Will design work; Can we do it? ---------->	-FEASIBILITY STUDY
	What will be the ecological consequences ---------->	-ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACT ASSESSMENT
	Is it worth doing?----->	-COST BENEFIT STUDY
3. During implementation	Is action proceeding as planned? ---------->	-MONITORING
4. At end of project	Were objectives achieved effectively and efficiently? Unintended consequences? Lessons learned.------->	-IMPACT ASSESSMENT -TERMINAL ASSESSMENT -FINAL EVALUATION

4. EVALUATIONS REQUIRE INFORMATION FOR DECISION MAKING.

Evaluation at any stage of the project cycle involves a systematic process of information gathering. Information in evaluation is for making decisions and thus should be:

U seful
C ost -effective
A ccurate
T imely

Useful information is information for decision makers, whether they be base groups, staff or managers, and which will make their decisions of better quality - helping them achieve objectives more efficiently and effectively.

Cost effective information. Before gathering information the cost of gathering it should be balanced against its usefulness and effectiveness. Too much information or excessive time spent in gathering information can be too costly in relation to the use to which it will be put.

Accurate information is required for decisions to be effectively implemented. Inaccurate information can lead to costly mistakes in implementation of an action plan and work plans. The accuracy of information depends on the skill and trust you have in those gathering the data. It is especially important to have contact with the beneficiaries of a project to maintain an accurate picture of their thoughts and feeling respecting implementation of the project.

Timely information. Information must also be received before decision deadlines arrive. The board and managers may, for example, have to make policy decisions with respect to project funding allocations at regular meetings. If they do not have information on the current status of a project they may not be able to make the needed decisions and the project can be delayed. Equally important is the need for beneficiaries to have information which will help them decide on how well a project is going, or whether a proposed project will benefit them.

5. PARTICIPATORY RESEARCH

Research is simply the systematic gathering and analysis of information (data) relevant to a particular situation or problem. Research is participatory and action oriented when there is:

SHARED OWNERSHIP:

The people most affect by a problem or situation are themselves the researchers who define the problem, gather data, analyze it and make decisions about what action to undertake.

LEARNING:

Mutual learning among the "researched" and "researchers" takes place. This happens through systematic dialogue whereby all people involved in a research task define the topics to be researched and interpret for themselves the results of the research.

ACTION:

The research is oriented toward decision making for action which will alter a situation of oppression or exploitation and improve the lives of the people. It is not a mere academic exercise. It is action decided by those who will be most affected by a decision.

II. SOME KEY CONCEPTS

1. VARIABLES

A variable is a, problem, situation etc., which can change or be changed over time in some observable or measurable way. Variables have to be named and defined.

Most people don't use the term variable. They talk instead about problems they are experiencing and the causes of those problems. e.g. They may talk about the problem of weeds and how lack of water and shade trees contribute to too many weeds.

example:

Problem: " There are too many weeds in our fields"
Variable: degree (level) of weed infestation
Variable definition: proportion of each hectare covered by weeds.

The most essential element in this is that the people themselves decide what the central problem or need is and decide on the possible causes of the problems. For each problem a variable can be defined. In the weed example above, the farmers defined the weed problem as the most important and then searched for possible causes (dimensions) of the problem. In looking at the possible causes they came up with many new and related dimensions which can have many variables as well. In their analysis of these problems they related each dimension to the central problem and constructed a diagram which helped them understand the larger situation.

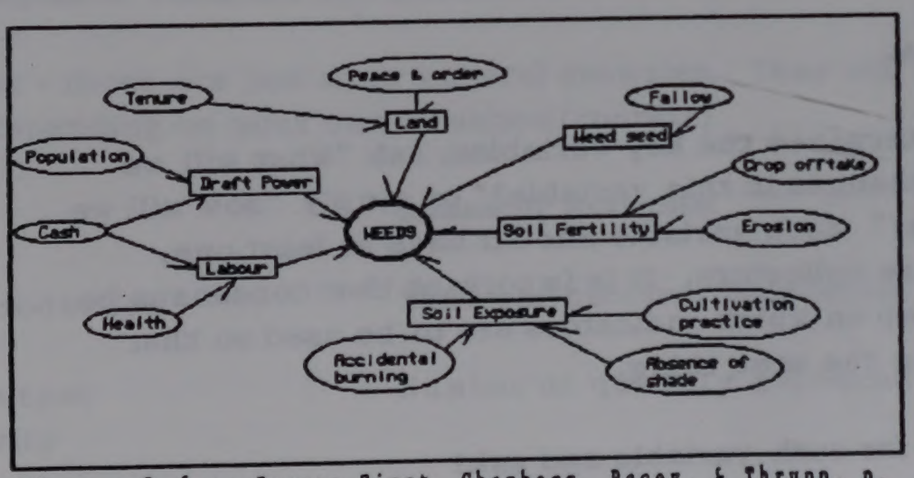

Figure 2. from *Farmer First*, Chambers, Pacey, & Thrupp, p. 97

2. INDICATORS

Indicators are observable standards used to show change in a situation or variable.

It is important to distinguish between quantitative and qualitative indicators.

Quantitative indicators are those which can be expressed in numbers. e.g. income in shillings, area of land in acres, number of cattle, cost of housing, etc. Quantitative indicators of participation might include the number of people present at meetings, the number of times each person speaks, the number of time meetings take place etc.

Qualitative indicators are those which require words, or description. e.g. in observing participation in a group, we may find that quantitative indicators are not sufficient. We would need qualitative indicators which describes the body language of persons, the content of what they say, or even the intensity and quality of feeling when they speak.

It is important to use both qualitative and quantitative indicators.

There are some indicators which have been almost universally accepted in the world - e.g. weight in kilograms, dimensions in metres, hours, etc. These are "external" indicators. However there is no guarantee that the people you work with will be using these indicators. From a participatory perspective we should seek indicators which the people themselves use and on which there is a consensus. These are **participant based indicators.**

Specifying Indicators.

1. Once you have determined the key variables, ask "What will we observe to measure changes in this variable?" or simply "How will we measure this variable?" Each variable should have at least one, preferably two or more indicators. It is important that consensus be reached within a group on which indicators are to be used so that everyone is measuring the same thing.

2. List the indicators for each variable and ask?

a) Is it valid? Does it really measure accurately and sensitively the variable?

e.g. In one village which is on flat terrain, the presence of a bicycle in a household may be a valid indicator of the level of income of the family. In hilly or mountainous terrain where bicycles are impractical it would not be a valid indicator

b) Is it reliable? Can it be used repeatedly, over time to measure the variable

e.g. If I used the presence of a bicycle at the beginning of project (baseline) to measure the level of income, can I use it at the end of the project (Impact assessment) to measure level of income? Perhaps as a result of increased income people begin to use more public transport and abandoned their bicycles. If so this indicator is not reliable.

c) Is it relevant? Can the people you are working with understand and use the indicator?

e.g. Using elaborate or technically complex equipment and ph levels to measure soil acidity may be interesting to the scientist and may in some cases be important, but would be meaningless to the farmer who is trying to raise vegetables on soils which are too acidic. A simple tasting or smelling of the soil by an experienced farmer could be a more useful and relevant indicator.

d) Is it cost-effective? Can the indicator be used effectively without too much expense of time or money?

Some examples of variables and indicators

(Remember - these are just some general examples. They will be more specific depending on your own situation/context)

variables	**indicator examples**
level of production	Yield per hectare, production per unit
level of output productivity	Number or quantity produced per day.
Level of income	Individual/group/village income per week/per month/per hour etc.

Ownership of assets	Number of cattle owned Number of acres/hectares/etc owned
Access to capital	
degree of mechanization	Number persons per tractor
input performance	Dates of delivery of building materials against target
Nutritional status	Weight for age, weight for height height for age
General health level	Infant mortality rate rate of death from major causes
Literacy rate (level)	Proportion of people who can/can't read labels on com consumer items/ Proportion of people who can/can't read and complete loan application.
Level of education	Literacy rate Average number of years of formal schooling.
Gender equality	Proportion of females in formal education Male female wage differentials Proportion of female members in agriculture coop.
Environmental/ ecological sustainability	Area of land too saline to grow rice Rate of deforestation/reforestation in hectares per yea
Level of participation	Number of people attending community meetings Frequency with which each individual speaks at meetin Frequency with which poorest in community speak at mee Volume offood contributions during a community work pr
Level of leadership	Number of local leaders Number of local leaders from the poorest
Quality of leadership	Numberof problems faced and decisions taken in open mee

III. STEPS IN EVALUATION

STAGE I. PREPARING TERMS OF REFERENCE (TORs) AND WRITING AN EVALUATION WORK PLAN.

1. Bring together key people or stakeholders and clarify:

a) Why the evaluation is important and necessary and what assumptions underlie the evaluation.

b) What the context is for this evaluation

b) What the goals and objectives of the evaluation will be and what are the major decision questions are that you want answered.

d) What type and stage of evaluation you will be undertaking

e) Who the stakeholders are and what kind of participation they will have in the evaluation.

Depending on your organization, how large it is, and the type of evaluation you are doing, you should start with a small group representing different interests which relate to the organization. Any evaluation is a group effort, or stated another way, it is preferable to work in teams, and not as an individual. For example, the group you bring together could be as few as two people for a very short 1 hour monitoring of a training day, or it could be as many as eight or ten people to determine terms of reference for evaluating a national literacy training program, or a government agricultural extension program.

If you are doing an interim, terminal or impact assessment of a program it is often necessary to do a preliminary scanning of the situation before you start a more detailed evaluation. This scanning can involve:

- reviewing secondary sources: eg. baseline data, previous evaluations, monitoring or administrative reports, government data (be careful!),
- informal interviews, informal discussions with key informants,
- maps and diagrams of physical/ecological systems or of institutions.

In the group discuss and clarify what the goals and objectives of the evaluation will be. If you are monitoring, or doing a terminal or impact evaluation it is most important to review the objectives of the project or program. If the project/program objectives have been written well they should be evaluable (ie. indicate measurable or observable change). Your evaluation objectives will include one or more which will determine of the project objectives have been achieved. Clarifying and stating goals and objectives is an exercise in testing assumptions about the situation, problems, project etc. that you want to evaluate. For example, if your group wants to evaluate the effectiveness of a village MCH project, you are making the assumption that there was, probably still is, a problem of poor health among mothers and infants. You may also be making the assumption that the project has made some improvement in the situation. Your evaluation will test these assumptions. In writing the objectives for the evaluation think of what decisions may be made, or need to be made on the basis of the evaluation. eg:

Goal: To determine the impact of the Kisii diocese MCH program and on the basis of this to recommend whether and how to proceed with a new or revised program.

Decision question: What revisions should we make to the training content for our MCH program next year?
Objective: By September 1993 we will have detailed knowledge of the impact of 1990-92 training among childbearing women and their children in Kisii diocese.

It is necessary to know who are the stakeholders, i.e., who has an interest in the evaluation and what that interest is. Understanding the interest in the evaluation is based on at least two considerations:

1. How their decisions affect the future of the project, program and organization
2. How decisions based on the recommendations of the evaluation may affect the stakeholder.

In participatory evaluation the first and most important stakeholder are the poor or disadvantaged who either own the

project, or who are the beneficiaries of the program of the organization. A useful way to help determine stakeholder interest and participation is to complete a chart similar to the following:

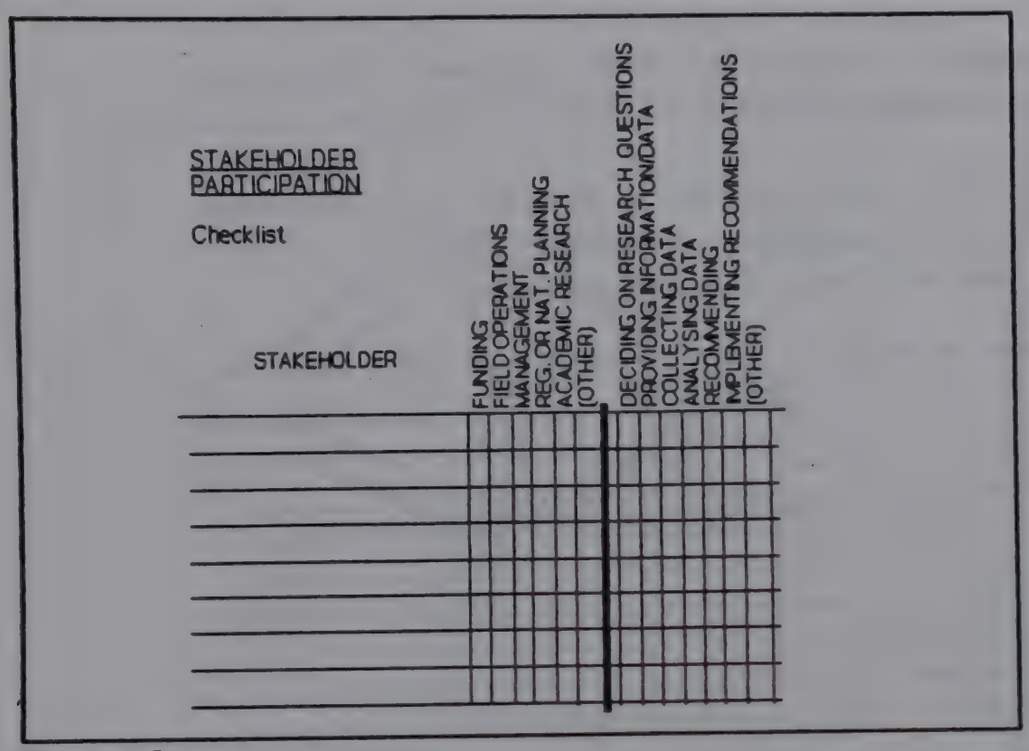

Figure 3

2. *Establish a time frame for the evaluation.*

Many evaluations are useless or poorly done because either too little time was allowed for the task; or, they take so long that the results are not useful to a program or to the organization. The questions to ask are: "When do we need the results and recommendations of this evaluation? Can we achieve our goals within this time frame? If you can't get the results when they are needed then the goals of the evaluation may have to be made more modest. The time constraints should be considered as you continue the evaluation planning and the doing the evaluation itself.

3. *Determine the budget and other resource limits for the evaluation.*

Evaluation should form a part of the budget of a program or project. At this stage you should try to estimate what the evaluation may cost and compare it with the amounts allocated. If the allocation is too little, discussions will have to be initiated to

raise the allocation. In some instances there is no budget for evaluation and discussions will have to be initiated to obtain support.

4. *Write terms of reference and evaluation work plan*

The terms of reference consist of a written statement of items 1 -3 above. The workplan is simply a written statement and chart of:

-the major tasks which have to be done for each objective
-who will be responsible for doing this
-When the task will begin and be completed

EVALUATION WORK PLAN

Objective		When									
Tasks	Who?	jan	feb	mar	apr	may	jun	jul	aug	sept	
Objective											
Tasks	Who?										

Figure 4

STAGE II. PREPARING A RESEARCH PLAN

The following elements are important in developing a research plan. These are not really steps which can be done one after another but should be done together as each of them relates to the other.

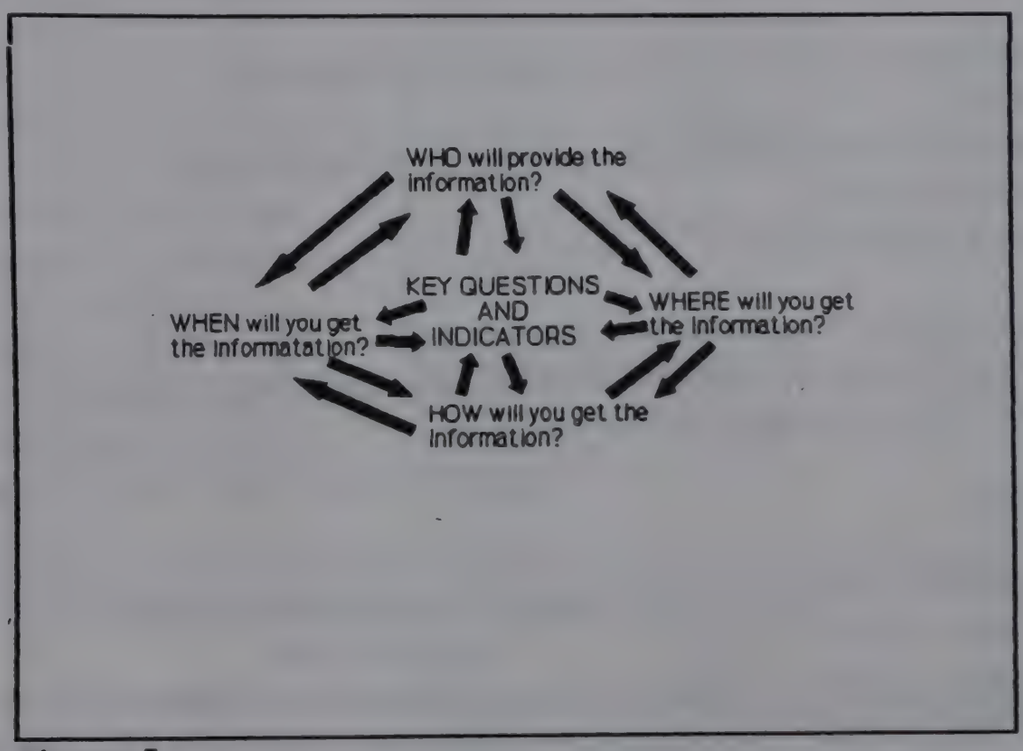
WHO will provide the information?
KEY QUESTIONS AND INDICATORS
WHEN will you get the Informatation?
WHERE will you get the Information?
HOW will you get the Information?

Figure 5

As a general guideline it is best to start with key questions and indicators and then discuss who will provide the information, when, where, and how it will be gathered.

1. *Formulate key questions*

We begin this stage by asking:

- What are the key questions for which we need answers? To begin this we look at the evaluation objectives and develop questions which will help us answer these questions. examples:

Objective: By September 1993 we will have detailed knowledge of the impact of 1990-92 training among childbearing women and their children in Kisii diocese.

Key question: How many participants were in the training program each year?
Key question: What are participants doing now to maintain sanitary food preparation standards that they were not doing before the program?
Key question: Have others who were not in the training program adopted any of the changes recommended in the training?
Key question: Has there been any change in the infant mortality rate?
Key question: Are the changes, if any, attributable to the training they received.
(etc. - more key questions.

(for discussion: remember that these are just examples. How would the beneficiaries participate in establishing the key questions? What questions might be most important to them?)

2. *Specify indicators*

For each key question we should specify one or more indicators which will tell us what change has occurred. Remember that indicators can be either qualitative or quantitative. In either case they must be tangible - something which can be heard, seen, tasted, touched or smelled. We should always ask if the indicator is **valid** and **reliable.** Developing and using valid and reliable indicators is the most important part of an evaluation and you should give a lot of attention to this. It is especially important that the indicators be developed with the participants in a program. Indicators which people do not understand or agree with are often invalid and unreliable. (for discussion: are the indicators in the example below valid and reliable? What makes them valid or invalid; reliable or unreliable?)

Key question: What are participants doing now to maintain sanitary food preparation standards that they were not doing before the program?

Indicator: presence/absence of animals in house
Indicator: drinking water boiled in home.
etc. - more indicators

3. *Specify the source of information or who will provide the information*

In this step you should decide who will provide the information for each indicator; for example, if the indicator above "drinking water boiled in the home" is used, then the source of the information may be the housekeeper herself, or it may be a health worker, or even one or two older women who have a day-to-day knowledge of what goes on in within families in a village.

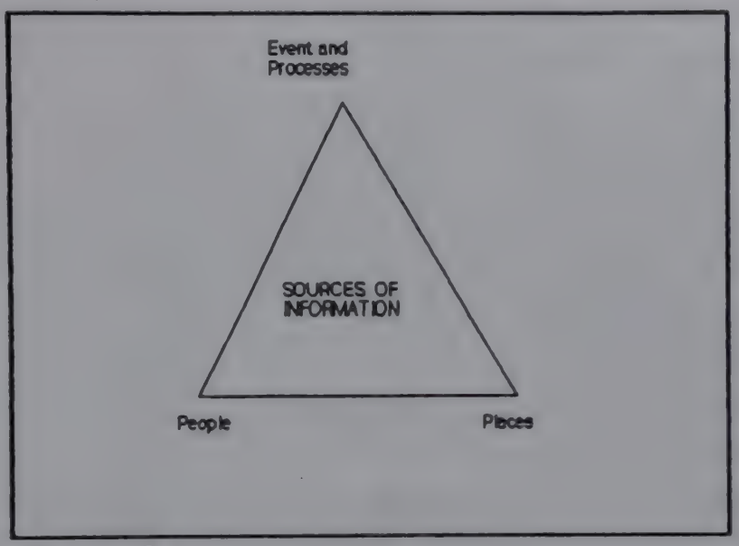

Figure 6

In participatory evaluation the people you are working with can describe quit clearly who has the needed information.

In some evaluations, such as an environmental impact assessment, or in a resources survey, it is not only the people you look to for information, but also the natural world - land, water, air, forests, crops etc. which are the "source" of the information.

4. *Specify who will gather and analyze the information.*

The task of gathering information and analyzing it is a participatory activity. However, not everyone can do everything; there must be some division of labour. The most important requirement is to build one or more multidisciplinary teams (depending on the type and scale of the evaluation) with a variety of needed skills and knowledge on each team. A team can consist of both insiders (eg. villagers, staff,) and outsider ("experts or academics") and should include both men and women.

5. *Specify when you will get the information.*

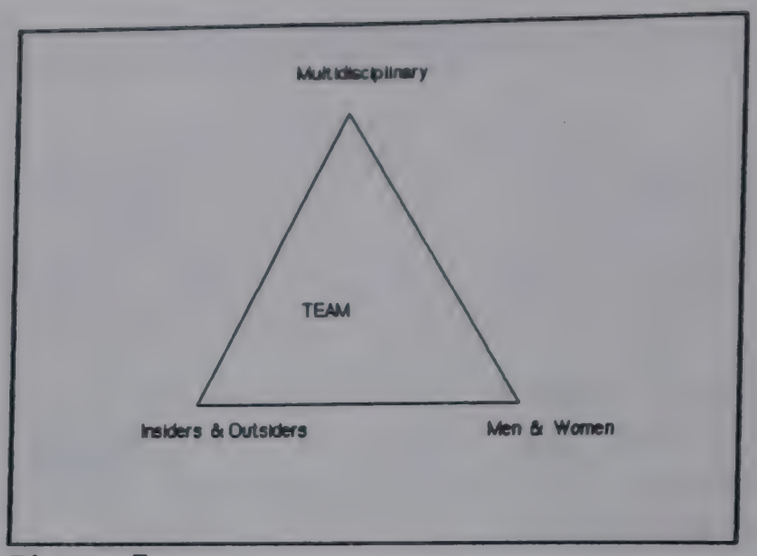

Figure 7

It is important to know the appropriate time to gather information. In a participatory evaluation the participants can tell you when it is most convenient to gather information and at what times people are likely to be most forthcoming and open in their discussions and responses. They can tell for example that in the early morning during harvest is not a good time to engage in discussion with women about issues of child health: the women may be too busy. On the other hand this may be an excellent time to simply observe patterns of infant care.

6. *Specify the tools (methods) or techniques you will use to get the information.*

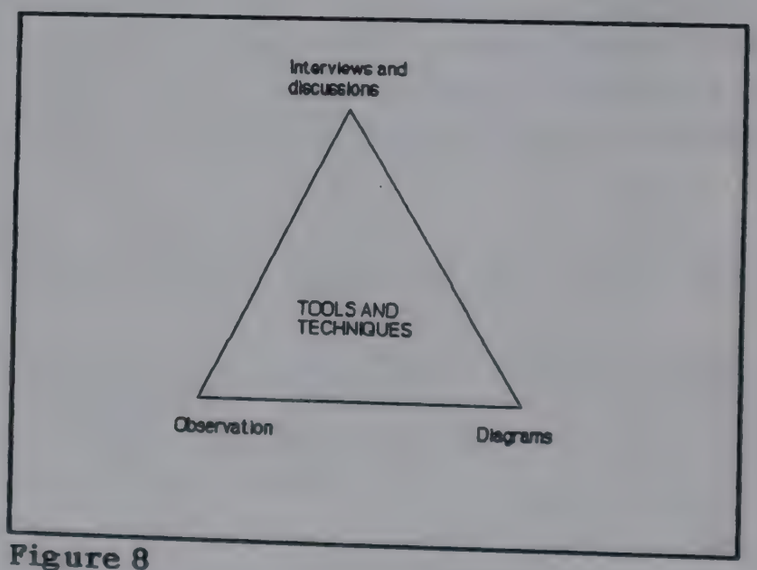

Figure 8

There are many techniques which can be used singly or in combination to gather information. None of the techniques can be separated from elements 1 - 4 above. Following is a list of different techniques which can be applied to gather information about one or more indicators. are based on three "core" techniques which any evaluation research will use:

Together the tools (methods), the evaluation team, (including men and women, and the sources of information can give some assurance that

the results of the evaluation will be fair, accurate and provide recommendations that are useful.

Secondary Data Review	Direct Observation
Checklists	Semi-Structured
Interviewing	Focus Group discussions
Preference Ranking	Pairwise Ranking
Direct Matrix Ranking	Ranking by voting
Wealth Ranking	Analysis Group Discussion
Innovation Assessment	Construction of Diagrams
Mapping and Modelling	Historical and Future Mapping
Mobility Mapping	Social Mapping
Transects (Walks)	Seasonal Calendar
Time Trends	Historical Profile
Livelihood Analysis	Flow/Causal Diagram
Systems Diagram	Pie Chart
Histogram	Participant Observation
Oral Histories	Workshops
Group Walks	Stories
Case Studies & Portraits	Proverbs
Indigenous Categories and Terms,	

Text Box 1

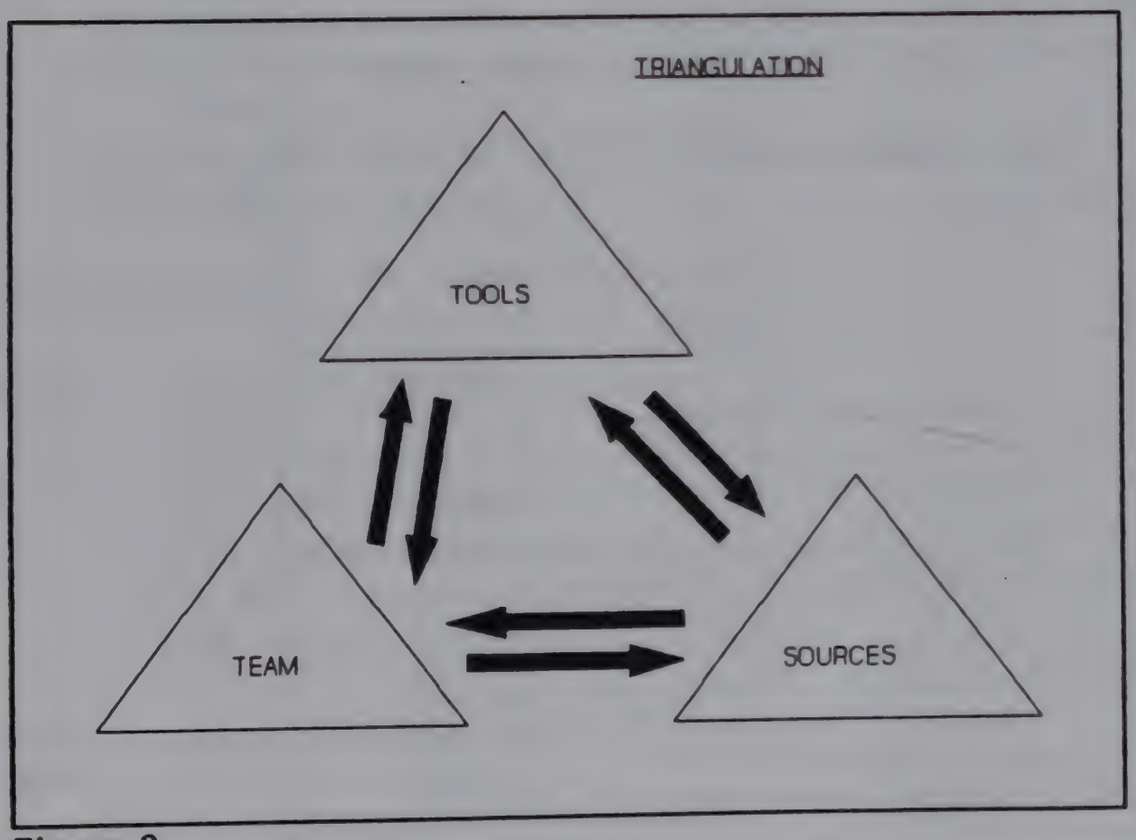

Figure 9

7. Write your research Plan

As you decide with participants on the elements 1 - 6 above you should make careful note of what has been decided. Each element should be described in writing so that people will know what is expected of them. Often people will feel they need some training, especially in using the tools/techniques which have been specified. Writing the plan helps to define who needs training and what training they may require. Once you have written the plan, you can make a chart of what you have written to clarify the timing or sequence. The chart is a kind of short-hand reminder of what has to be done, and allows you to monitor your evaluation work. When preparing the chart:

- list the indicators chronologically in the order in which you think you will gather data about them.
- information which is easiest to gather should generally be gathered first so try to put these indictors first in the chart.

At this stage, if you are doing a more extensive or complex evaluation, a budget should be drawn up, within the framework of the evaluation plan budget you did earlier. (Stage I)

RESEARCH PLAN OUTLINE

Key Question					
	source	who	where	tools	when
Indicator					
Indicator					
Indicator					
Indicator					
Indicator					
Key Question					
Indicator					
Indicator					
Indicator					
Indicator					
etc.					
etc.					
etc.					

Figure 10

STAGE III. GATHERING AND ANALYZING DATA

1. *Gather Information/Data*

This is the point at which you actually implement the research plan and apply the tools and techniques you have specified in the plan. Each technique has its own pattern (see section "Tools and Techniques") but there are guidelines in gathering data which include:

- work in multidisciplinary teams.
- "pass the stick" - Let people speak for themselves and use their own imagination and language
- record record record!!! Decide before you begin your data gathering how you will record the information and designate someone on the team to be responsible for this. Recording should be done while the data is being gathered or immediately afterward.
- have the necessary resources easily available. Notebooks, pens, pencils, newsprint, tape, etc should be available. Use local resources where possible. Stones, sticks, leaves, seeds etc. are often very useful markers that people can understand and use.
- Be in done the community or situation you are evaluating.
- Use a variety of tools; don't rely on only one or two techniques
- gather all the data you need, but no more than you need
- be flexible and informal.

2. *Analyze the data*

Analysis of information should:

- be an integral part of the data gathering process
- be done on the spot
- be done with the people
- be done with the evaluation objectives clearly in mind
- search for new relevant questions giving depth and focus on the problems which affect the people.

During the analysis there are some questions which should be present:

- Why do people say this/that?; why do they do this/that in a particular way?
- What possibilities for the future does this data present?

- What are the relationships among people and what does this mean in terms of power and control over resources, benefits, etc.

The analysis will point to new questions which need to be asked, situations which need to be understood, and possibilities which need to be explored. The process of data gathering and analysis is *iterative*, ie., it is cyclical and increasingly gives depth and understanding to a situation you are evaluating.

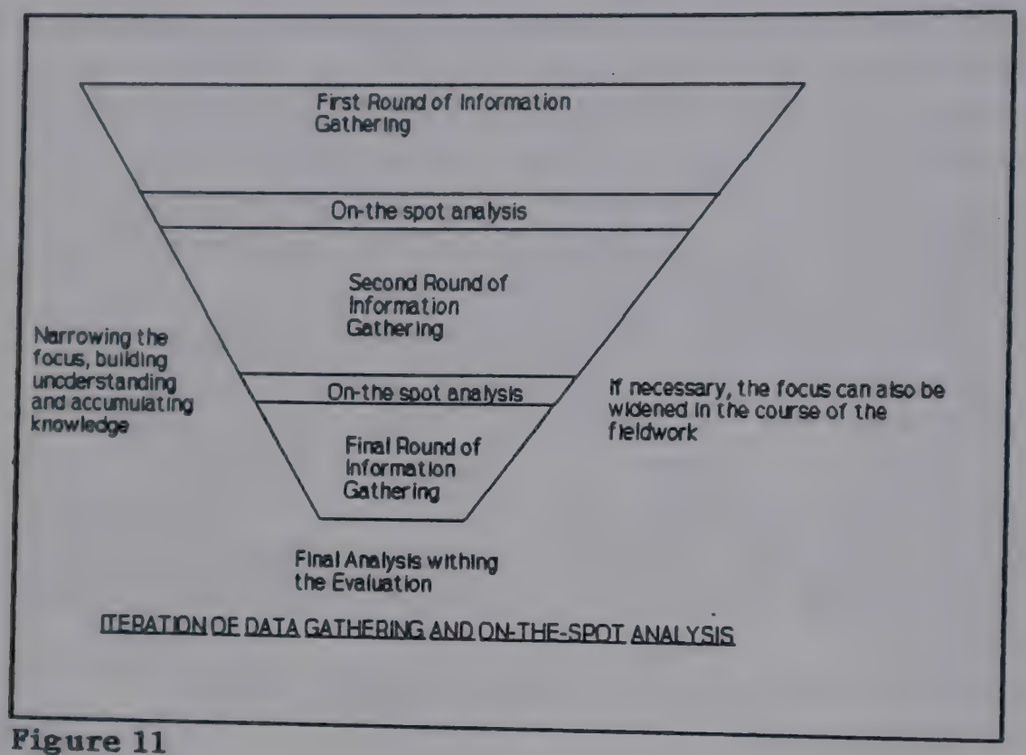
First Round of Information Gathering
On-the spot analysis
Second Round of Information Gathering
On-the spot analysis
Final Round of Information Gathering
Final Analysis withing the Evaluation
Narrowing the focus, building uncderstanding and accumulating knowledge
If necessary, the focus can also be widened in the course of the fieldwork
ITERATION OF DATA GATHERING AND ON-THE-SPOT ANALYSIS

Figure 11

STAGE IV. PREPARING RESULTS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

At this stage of the evaluation you have completed your analysis and it is now time to prepare in an appropriate form your results and conclusions along with the recommendations you want to make

1. *Review evaluation objectives and state what you have learned in relation to each objective (results or findings).*

It is important throughout the evaluation to keep the objectives in mind, but at this stage you should revisit them in detail and ask:

- What have we discovered about the situation or program/project? In particular, what changes have occurred or what new understandings we have about a situation which indicate both possibilities for the future and constraints on future action to improve people's lives?

- What have we discovered about the underlying causes or reasons for the changes? Do they have do with;
  * participation and process among the people, within the organization?
  * resources or lack of resources and inputs? These can be human resources of time, skills, labour, knowledge, or they can be physical resources of money, material etc. Ecological resources may be part of this as well - soils, water, crops etc.
  * assumptions? Were the assumptions of the project or program, or even of particular tasks (eg. for monitoring) correct?

Look especially for unexpected or unanticipated results. Very often evaluation uncover unexpected outcomes of a project and these can become the most valuable lessons learned.

2. *On the basis of your results state your conclusions.*

It is important that all your conclusions be based on the evidence or information you have gathered in the evaluation. In the conclusions you should stress causes of changes; ie,
- stating why a certain change occurred
- where responsibility lies for the change. Give credit for work well done and the conditions which contributed to good performance. Show where work may not have been performed well and the reasons or conditions for the poor performance.

At this point in the evaluation you should draw out the lessons learned, "dos" and "Don'ts" for each of the stake holders.

3. *Prepare your recommendations*

There are some guidelines for preparing recommendations and these should be followed carefully. Most people when they

understand an evaluation is being completed want to see the recommendations first.

Recommendation Guidelines:

- Be clear and concise. Use simple language and keep each recommendation as short as possible.
- One sentence - one recommendation
- Recommendations should be specific and implementable.
- Recommendations should be directed to a person or office/position which can implement the recommendation.
- Recommendations should be based on the evidence ie, data and analysis
- Keep recommendations as positive as possible. It is usually better to recommend a positive alternative than to give one or recommendations all containing "don'ts".
- If there are many recommendations you should group them by topics or in some other logical sequence eg., according the stakeholders.

In more complex evaluations the recommendations are often written twice: once with the appropriate conclusions (item 2 above) and together at the end of the evaluation.

STAGE V. REPORTING

1. *Review stakeholder list and decide on the kind and extent of reporting required.*

At this stage we should look carefully at the stakeholders and decide on what kind of report is appropriate to each of them and how much time should be devoted to reporting to each. A reporting process that does not include the beneficiaries is a kind of theft of their knowledge and opinions. It is not a participatory evaluation. If an external donor or agency requires the evaluation and is paying for it then it is up to the receiving organization, when preparing terms of reference, to build in to the whole evaluation process, including the reporting, the participation of all the stakeholders.

For each stake holder decide on:

- when is the most appropriate time to report,
- where is the most appropriate place to report,
- how you will report.

STAKEHOLDER REPORT SCHEDULE

Stakeholder	When?	Where?	How?

Figure 12

A report to participants in the villages or community your organization works in will be different than the report to an external funding source. The latter will require a detailed written report, along with consultation, whereas the report to the villages may require an oral presentation with good use of graphic materials. For both the reporting should be the culmination of a participatory process which has involved them throughout the evaluation.

A detailed written report should be organized in a logical form. Following a simple outline of what a longer written report should contain.

Table of Contents

I. Introduction or Executive Summary (for longer reports)
The introduction should contain a statement of the purpose of the evaluation; when and where it was conducted, who was responsible for the overall evaluation. An executive summary is usually done for longer reports and should include a statement of the evaluation purpose, place, time, major objectives, and the major recommendations.

II. Terms of Reference
- stakeholders who are responsible for the evaluation and what their obligations are. (if there are legal contracts, detailed schedules, budgets etc., these can be placed in an appendix)
- purpose and objectives of the evaluation

III. Background
- a description of the institutional and social context in which the evaluation is taking place. This can include a recent history of the organizations, communities, etc, which are relevant to the evaluation. Keep it as short as possible.

III. Methodology
- a general description of the methods used in the evaluation. You should include the times and places where evaluation and data gathering activities took place.

IV. Findings

- a detailed presentation of the information gathered and results of the on-the-spot analyses which took place. This is the longest section of the report and can include charts, graphs, maps etc which are necessary to understanding the situation being evaluated. Detailed descriptions of tools/techniques used can be included here as well

V. Conclusions

- this section synthesizes the findings and states to what extent project or program objectives have been met, what the problems or causes of problems were, and what unexpected results there were. It includes the lessons learned - the "dos" and "don'ts".

VI Recommendations

IV. INTRODUCTION TO METHODS

1. METHODS COMPARED[1]

Traditional research methods have been based on random sample surveys with rigid questionnaires. These have been quantitatively based and difficult to work with. In the last 5 to 10 years new methods have been devised which are more participatory, and which are more practical for use in the field. They are methods which are based on the knowledge that the people have already, and on a team approach to research. There are various names for this kind of research - Rapid Rural Appraisal, Participatory Rapid Appraisal, etc. Whatever the name they have in common the following features:

1. **A multidisciplinary team.** Research is not done alone but by a team with diverse skills and experience which allow for different viewpoints on a particular problem or situation. Women should always be included on the team, and all members of the team should be involved from the beginning of the research through to its completion.

2. **Triangulation.** Information gathered is always cross-checked using different sources or methods.

3. **A "basket" of methods.** A variety of methods are available which can be adapted to a local situation.

4. **Done in the Community.** Both the research and the analysis is done in the community with the participation of community members.

5. **Parsimony.** This means that only information which is needed is gathered. the key questions are: What kind of information *do* we need and what information *don't* we need? and, How accurate does the information have to be?

6. **Offsetting Biases and Self-Critical.** The research team searches out the poorest and most silent in the community, including the

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[1] Material for this section is drawn extensively from *Participatory Rapid Appraisal for Community Development*, A Training Manual by Jaochim Theis & Heather M. Grady, presently in draft. 1991

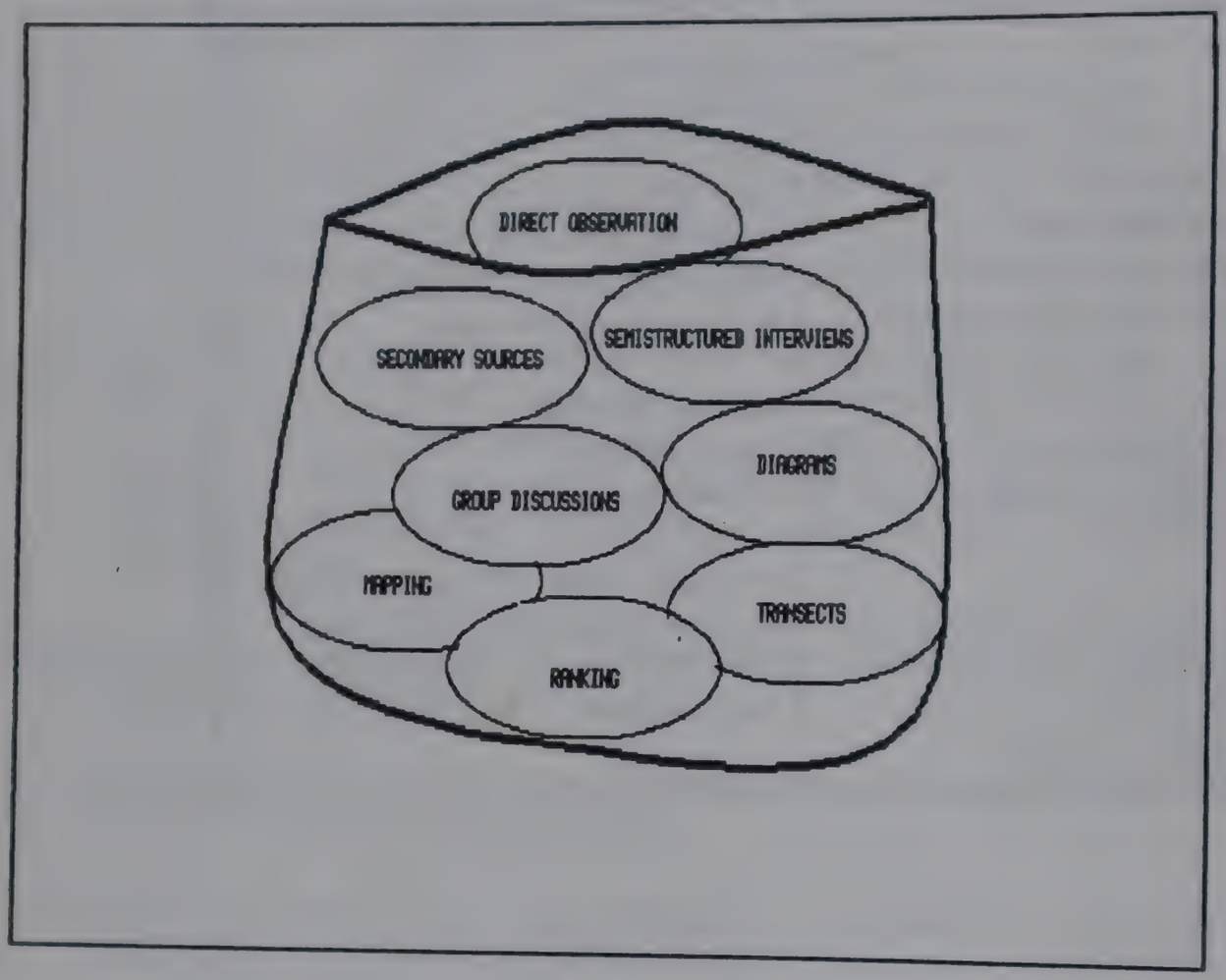
women, and does so at the worst season of the year in the more remote or difficult to reach regions. The team members are aware of their own biases and actively work to overcome them.

2 Participatory and Questionnaire Methods Compared.

PARTICIPATORY APPRAISAL	QUESTIONNAIRE SURVEY
Short time	Long time
Low cost	High cost
Flexible	Fixed
High Participation	Low participation
On the spot analysis	Analysis in office
Little statistical analysis	Heavy statistical analysis
Semi-structured interviews & Group discussion	Formal Questionnaire
Opportunity sample	Random sample
Multi-disciplinary team	Enumerators
Non-hierarchical	Hierarchical
Overall: - best for learning and understanding the opinion, behaviour, and attitudes of disadvantaged people	*Overall: - best for quantitative data and statistical analysis. Used for census, very large populations.*

2. A BASKET OF METHODS (tools and techniques)

The methods used for evaluation are many. For participatory evaluation we can choose from many methods, each of which can be adapted for a particular situation. The key is to *choose methods which will be appropriate understood and usable by the people you are working with.*



2. DIRECT OBSERVATION.

Observation is one of the two legs (the other is Interviewing) on which all other methods and techniques rest.

Observation is a passive information gathering method which relies primarily on sight, but may also use hearing, taste, touch or smell. It is a procedure which helps us focus on a particular topic or theme for a specified time and in a particular place under conditions prevailing at that time. Systematic observation enforces a discipline on the observer which compels him or her to focus one or a few particular topics to the exclusion of others.

Key to the discipline of observation is *recording*. Always record observations as soon as possible. For recording you can use:

- -notebooks & record sheets
- -checklists
- -photos and drawings, maps
- -samples, - soils, leaves, water, etc.

Direct observation is especially useful in:

- - doing resources/environmental inventories
- - monitoring work done, materials inventories
- - understanding peoples' daily routines
- - group dynamics

Observation is used in situations where active involvement would make it difficult to obtain valid data, and where you want to check on information gathered by other methods. For example, if you want to monitor meetings of a local development committee which is not working well, or where there may be conflict, it can be useful to have someone, possibly and outsider, observe the meetings without participating in the discussions. That person may be able to see what is going on without having a direct personal interest in the decision of the meeting, and thus may give a fairer picture of the problems the committee is having.

1. Guidelines for making Observations

1. Decide with participants on the major theme or topic to be studied.

2. Decide on indicators, i.e., what you will actually observe.

V. RESEARCH TOOLS AND TECHNIQUES

1. USING SECONDARY SOURCES

Secondary sources of information include previously written or prepared documents, maps, diagrams, tables etc. which may be relevant to the situation you are evaluating.

As a general rule it is good practice to review secondary sources *before* beginning field research. This can save time by reducing the scope of questions you need to ask, and generally reducing the amount of data you need to gather. Secondary sources can provide you with very valuable background information.

Secondary sources could be those documents you look at before you begin work in the community or field work, (e.g. government census reports, aerial photos, marketing reports - what ever is appropriate.) or they could be the documents you look at before you commence a final evaluation, (e.g. monitoring reports, previous maps drawn by the people, tables, diagrams etc.)

When reviewing secondary sources, you should keep summary notes in the form of short paragraphs, diagrams, charts etc. If photographs and maps are available it may be useful to obtain copies for use in the field. (This can be quite costly however, -weigh the costs and benefits carefully).

In reviewing secondary sources be as critical as possible, especially about statistics and tables, and statements which are made without clear evidence. Try to determine what is *not* in the secondary sources but which may be important.

In reviewing reports, newspapers, articles, etc. look for words or expressions which are used repeatedly - do they have any real meaning? Try to understand what the writers bias is.

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3. Decide beforehand
   - -where observations will take place,
   - -what time is available, i.e. when and how long you will observe,
   - -how you will record the observations.
   - -who will make the observations for each indicator.

4. If a number of observers are being used, some initial briefing or training my be required,

5. Make the observations in a way which will disturb as little as possible the situation you are observing,

6. Record you observations as soon as possible,

7. Discuss and analyze the recorded results with team and participants.

2. Sample Observation Schedule.[1]

You are part of a team doing a study of eating habits in your community. You must use the direct observation method to assess the eating habits of one household, that is, the household where you will eat dinner tonight.

Your team decides to observe the following:
- -number and types of dishes
- -number, age, and gender of people sharing the meal
- -quality and quantity of food
- -way of eating, (hands, utensils, sharing of dishes....)

Add as many additional observations as you feel will improve the quality of the evaluation. You will present your findings to other members of the community tomorrow.

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[1] From Theis and Grady, p. 37.

DIRECT OBSERVATION OF EATING HABITS

Name of Observer	No. & type of dishes	No., Age, Gender of People Sharing Meal	Quality & Quantity of Food	Way of Eating

3. SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEWING (SSI).

Semi-structured interviewing is a guided interview where the major topics and a few key questions are formulated before the interview, but many new additional (probing) questions are asked during the interview based on answers to the key questions.

Interviewing is both a skill and an art. It is learned through practice, but some training is important. If the people, either the team or members of the community have not done interviewing before it is important to build their confidence and skill beforehand.

1. Types of SSI's

1. **The Individual Interview.** With individual interviews you are trying to get information which is representative of the thoughts, feelings, opinions, of the community. These are interviews conducted with one person at a time and you ask people about *their own* thoughts, feelings etc. The same interview topic is usually conducted with a purposively selected number of people whose characteristics are representative of the characteristics of the overall population in the area you are working. In a village or farming community you would be sure to interview both men and women, and you would choose poor or landless farmers, traditional farmers, those who may have more resources and more "modern" methods, etc., and among all these be sure to include different crops and tilling patterns.

2. **The Key Informant Interview.** In key informant interviews you are trying to get specialized information from one person about the thoughts, feelings, behaviour, of *others* in the community. The key informant will have this specialized knowledge. An older woman may know details of family linkages, and family histories in detail. A teacher who is not originally from the village, may have information and a fairer view of what goes on in the village. Information from key informants should always be cross-checked (triangulation).

3. **Group Interviews.** Group interviews are useful for obtaining general information about the community. As the interview is conducted, others in the group can confirm or modify what is said, i.e., there is an immediate cross-checking of information. In group interviews it is best to avoid asking questions about individuals, and particular families, especially about wealth or status in the community. The information is likely to be inaccurate. Group interviews require very careful preparation. The ideal group is 8-15 people. Interviewing groups larger than 20 is difficult, especially in recording what has be said and seen.

2. Guidelines for SSI's [1]

-Prepare well before the interview.
-organize your interview team(s). Teams are usually 2 - 4 people.
-with the team list your topics and key questions; write them down with possible probe questions. Your key questions should be questions which lead to further questions.Questions can be built around secondary data, previous direct observation, previous interviews.
-Use the some of the six helpers (who, what, where, when, why, how) to help formulate questions
-Always ask open ended questions. Avoid questions that can be answered with "yes" or "no"
-Make your questions as specific as possible
-Don't ask to many "why?" questions. They tend to make people defensive.
-Keep questions as short as possible
-Don't ask leading questions.
-Don't put words in the peoples mouths (e.g. completing sentences or re-phrasing questions in your own works).
-Carefully lead up to sensitive questions
-Don't rely on only one or a few interviews
-One member of the interview team should be a note taker. The note taker and interviewer can alternate. Number questions and mark answers clearly.
-Memorize the questions as much as possible in order not to distract you and the interviewee from discussion and dialogue.
-Use sequences or chains of interviews.
-case studies can be built from interviews
-compare and contrast different situations - ask why one farmer plants in a certain way another uses a different planting method.
-probe: ask questions for additional detail and depth on each topic. Probing is a polite art, not an interrogation.
-be low-profile (humble). Small team, walking, in tune with the peoples schedule and time. Blend in. Sit at the same level.
-Observe as well as interview. The two go together. Watch facial expressions.

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[1] Adapted from Theis & Grady pp. 40-43.

3. Sample Interview Record

INTERVIEW RECORD

DATE TIME
PLACE
INTERVIEWERS _
_
_

TOPIC 1	RESPONSES	OBSERVATIONS
Key Question 1 probe questions _____ _____ _____ Key Question 2 probe questions _____ _____ _____		
TOPIC 2		
Key Question 1 probe questions _____ _____		

4. MAPPING

1. Uses and kinds of maps

Maps can be a fundamental part of any evaluation or planning work. They are especially useful in programs which involve land use, water sheds, afforestation, irrigation and agriculture etc. Maps can be useful for many purposes including:

a) social maps
-indicating where people live and how many people live in an area.
-social and residential differences in status and wealth
-buildings where people live or work and different uses of space in houses, offices, etc.
-the movement of people, who, where, for what purposes. (mobility maps)

b) physical and resource maps
-location and use of natural resources
-fields and land use
-physical land features
-water location, quality, and use
-soil types, use, location

2. Participatory mapping - how to proceed

Maps and diagrams drawn by the people themselves are not exact or accurate as a professionally drawn map would be. The purpose is to have people reflect visually, how they see their community or situation, and to share their different perspectives. In this way the map can help you understand the peoples view of a situation, and provide a useful tool for bringing people together and initiating discussion.

1. Discuss and decide the kind of map you should draw. Do spend some time thinking about the exercise - what information you need, why etc.

2. Bring people together who will have some knowledge about the area and can contribute to drawing.

3. Select the location for drawing, and what medium and tools you will use. If you choose to draw the map on the ground with sticks and markers, it is useful to have someone designated to observe and record it on paper as well, so that the information can be used later.

4. You can help people get started, but let them discuss and do the drawing by themselves. In getting started it is often useful to suggest that an outline be drawn first, to set a limit on the size of the map - i.e. the area to be covered. You can facilitate the exercise by asking questions at the right time, but don't don't interrupt and dominate the exercise. Questions can be asked which will encourage people to add useful information to the map.

5. When the map is complete you can use it to generate further discussion, by asking questions. Remember though, you are not criticising the map for lack of precision.

Sample Maps

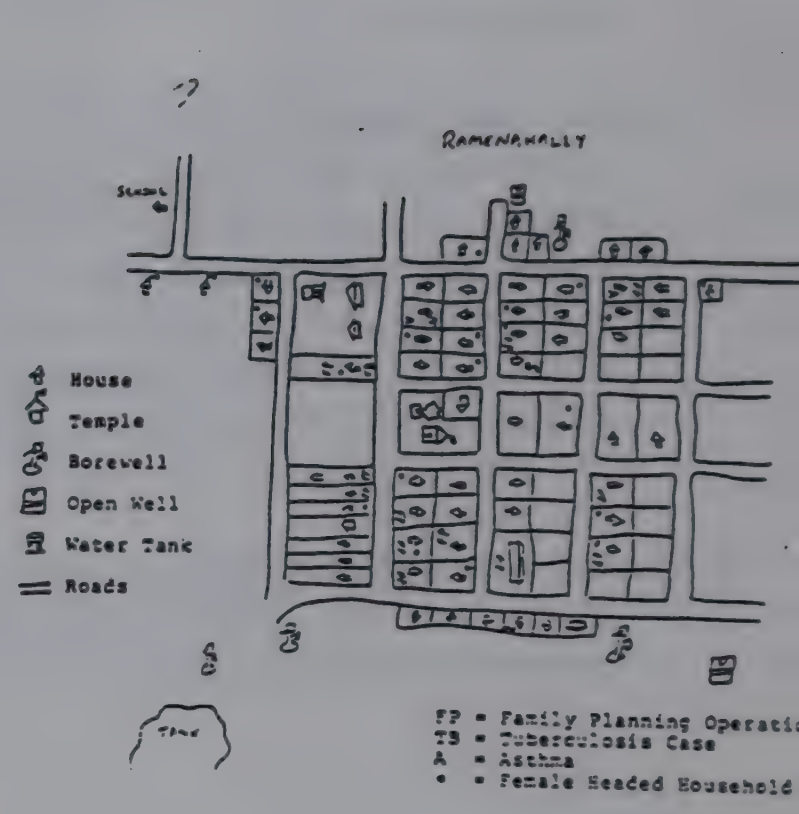


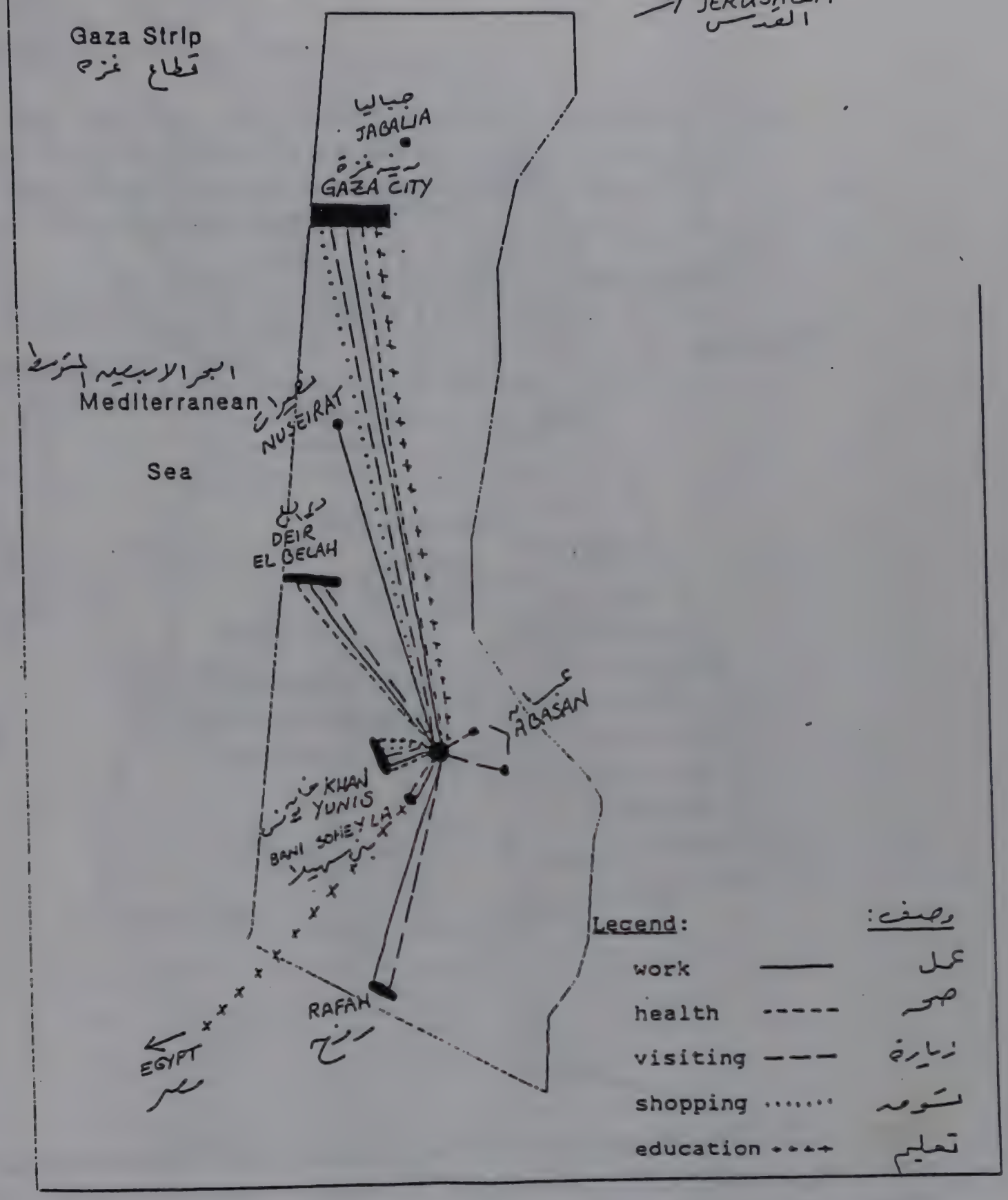
Figure 2 Maps drawn from two watershed models made by people of Ardanarypura village, Karnatka, India. The top shows the watershed 50 years ago, the bottom as it is today (1990). FRA team from MYRADA, Bangalore.

re 1. Social Map drawn by villagers of Ramenhally

From: *RRA Notes*, No. 12, July 1991. International Institute for Environment and Development.

خريطة الحركة للنساء في القرارة

Qarara Women's Mobility Map



From: *Participatory Rapid Appraisal for Community Development*, Theis and Grady, Jan 1991. p.64

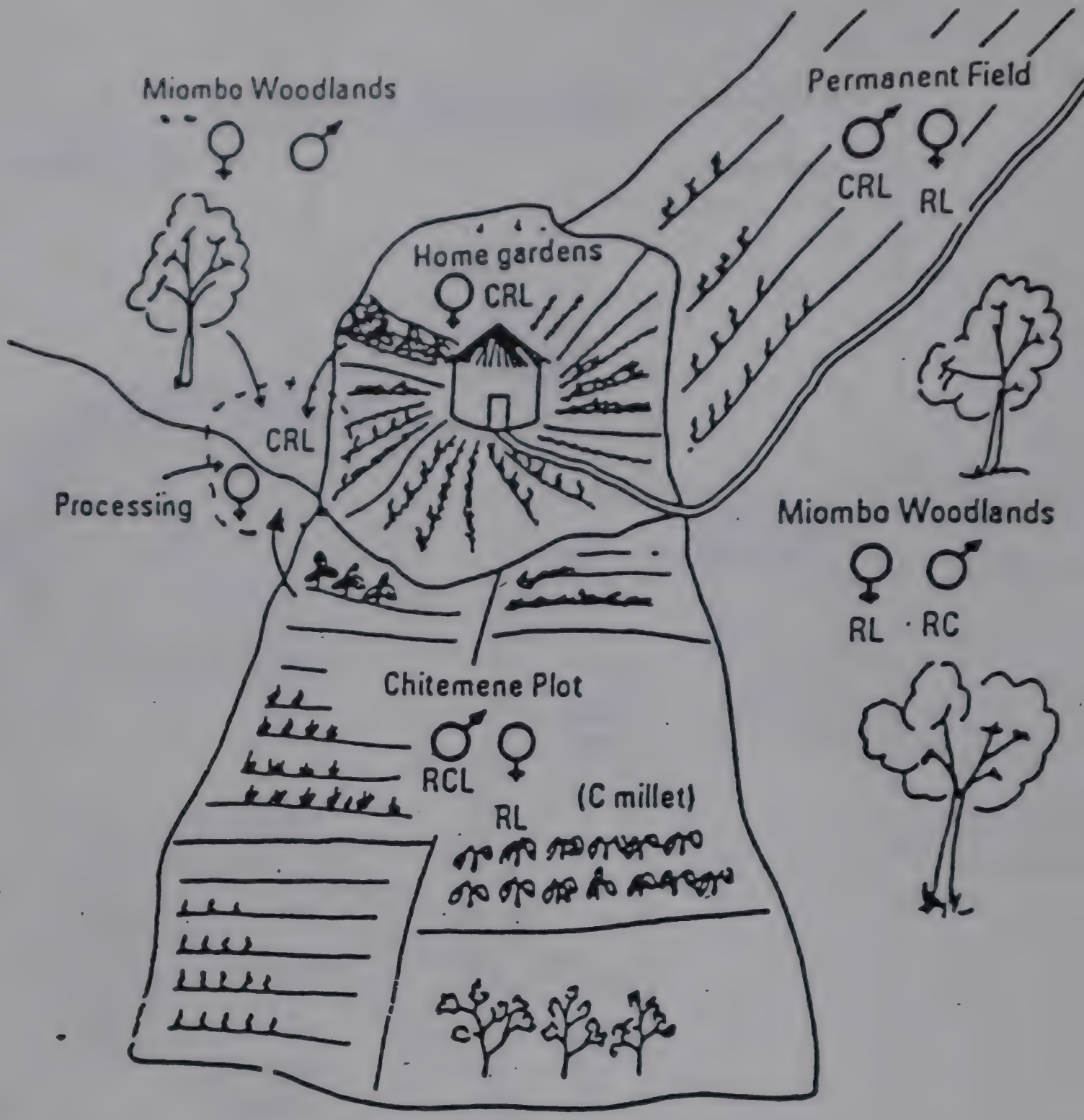


Figure 1.3: *The* chitemene *system in north-east Zambia, including new practices observed near Misamfu. Women control the millet crop (one of several in the intercrop rotation) on the* chitemene *plot. Other aspects of gender roles are denoted by:*

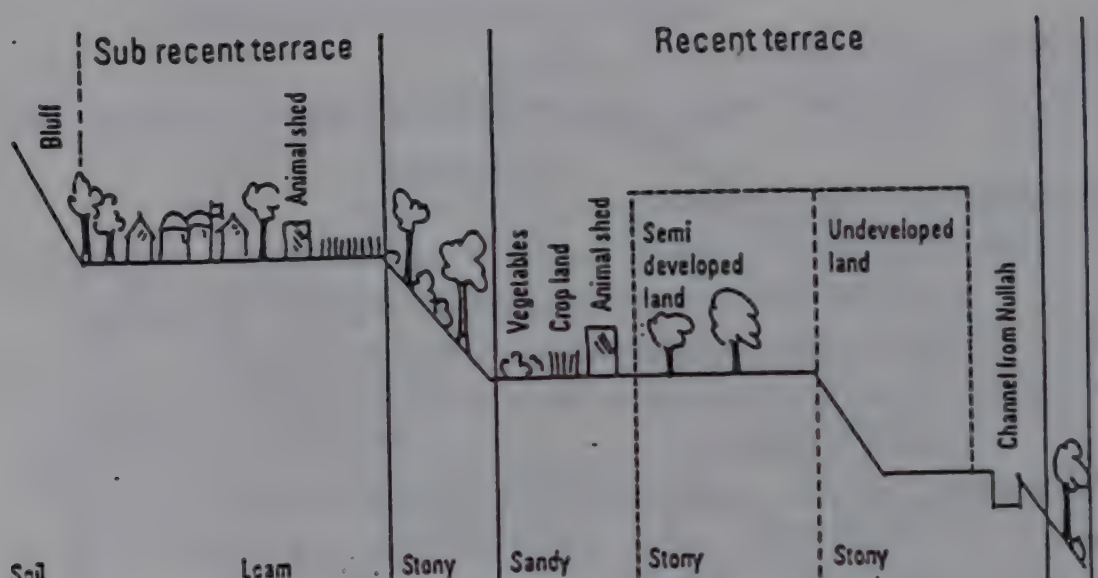
C 'control';
R 'responsibility';
L 'labour'.
(after Rocheleau 1987a)

5. TRANSECTS (the walking survey)

A transect is a "slice" or cut through a community or area to show the maximum social and ecological diversity. It is a kind of map and report of the main land use zones, the resources, and the problems and opportunities presented in the area.

The transect can provide more detailed data than a simple sketch map, and can include the results of informal interviews.

Example: Transect of a village in Northern Pakistan



Soil	Loam	Stony large boulders	Sandy loam	Stony sand	Stony sand
Crops	Wheat - Maize, Mash Wheat- Fallow Vegetables Potatoes	Bushes trees	As for recent terrace	Willow Poplar Russian Olive Thorny Bushes	Scattered trees
Livestock	Ruminants Free grazing in winter	Grazing	Free Grazing	Grazing	
Problems	Pod borer in mash Water flooding from dam Water shortages	Poor soil	Serious water shortages	Poor soil	Flooding
Opportunities	Pest control Extend canals-irrigation and water control		Improve grazing, extend canals	More trees	Alfalfa irrigation

Steps in Making a Transect

1. Transects should be done by a team. Select community members, women and men, who are familiar with the area and who are willing and able to spend the time walking through the community.

2. Discuss with the team and decide on:
   a) the route to be taken to include maximum diversity through the area. You should try to choose a starting and end point (height of land, a boundary etc.) which will allow you to see as much of the variety of ecology as possible, and let you meet and talk informally with a diversity of people. You can use the sketch map. At the same time try to keep the line as straight as possible.

   b) the different aspects to be noted;
      e.g. -soils, land use, crops, trees, livestock, labour, etc.

   c) the different responsibilities of the team;
      -who will observe what aspects. e.g. a farmer on the team might be asked to observe crops, an extension technician might observe the soils, etc.
      -who will be responsible for recording (drawing and taking notes)

3. Walk the transect. As you walk, observe, listen, and have brief informal interviews with some of the people you meet.
   - keep the interviews as informal as possible, but focus on *resource and other problems* people experience in their daily life and work.
   - in your observations keep in mind *possibilities for solutions* to the problems you are hearing about.
   - be sure to leave enough time for walking the transect. Depending on the area the walk can take as much as a day. In some situations you may have to do more than one transect.

4. Analyze the data and draw the transect with the team.
   - don't try to include too much detail
   - check data in question with key informants.

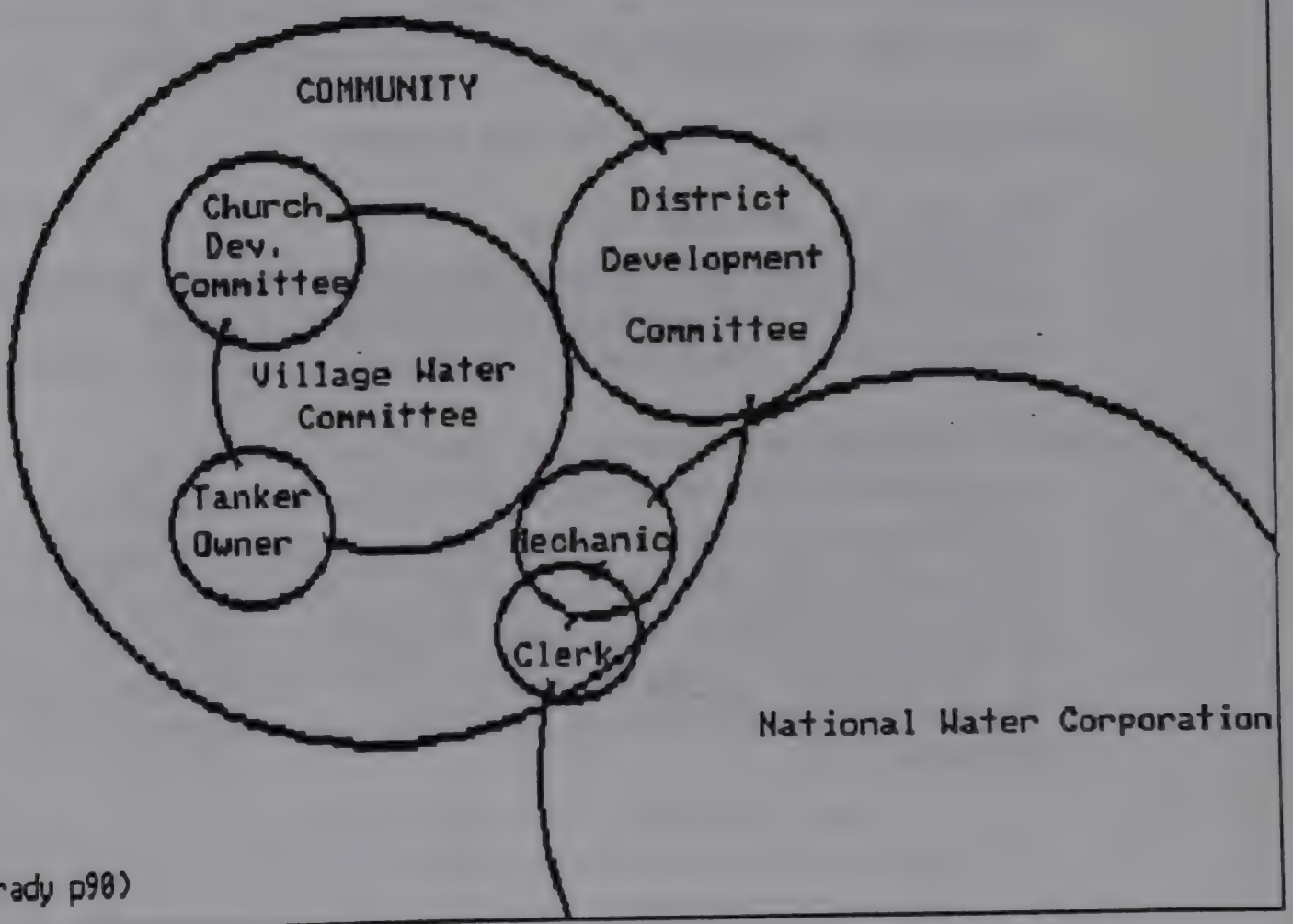
Use the transect to understand the relationship the environment and human activity. A transect is most useful before detailed planning of projects/programs.

6. VENN DIAGRAMS.

A Venn Diagram is simply a set of circles which show by size and location in relation to each other, the decision making importance of key individuals and institutions in a community.

Example: Venn Diagram

VILLAGE WATER USE CONTROL



(adapted from Theis & Grady p90)

Constructing a Venn Diagram

Venn Diagrams are often done later in a survey or Evaluation when some data has been gathered by observation or interviewing

1. Select or clarify the topic to be analyzed: e.g. MCH, fuelwood distribution, water control.

1. With a group of community members identify all the key individuals and institutions in the community which relate to the issue or topic.

2. Cut out or draw circles for each of these institutions or individuals. Make the circles larger or smaller according the size (importance/scope) of the institution.

3. If necessary supplement the knowledge of the group by further interviews, observation, or from secondary sources.

4. Arrange the circles on the following criteria

   No contact: separate circles
   touching circles: some information passes between institutions
   little overlap: some cooperation in decision making
   large overlap: considerable cooperation in decision making.

5. Analyze the diagram/circles to see which individuals or organizations need to worked with to improve project performance, to overcome problems in implementation, etc. The diagram can often help a group to evaluate and develop a strategy for working with other institutions. The diagram can be elaborated by using markers or colours indicating whether the organization is a help or hinderance to a project (force field analysis)

7. RANKING

Ranking methods are those methods which allow us to see individual and group priorities among a number of alternative problems or possibilities.

Rankin methods include:

- preference ranking
- pairwise ranking
- Direct Matrix ranking
- Wealth ranking

Ranking can be useful for getting sensitive information. For example, it is easier for people to say that they have more or less income, or land or wealth than others, rather than saying exactly what their income is. Ranking allows people to give a relative rather than absolute answer.

Ranking can be done either individually or in groups, as part of an interview, or by itself.

7.1 Preference Ranking

This is one of the easiest forms of ranking and can be used quickly to get a good idea of what people are the priority problems or preferences

Procedure

1. Choose a set of problems or preferences to be priorized. This can be done through brainstorming, or it can be done based on data gathered during previous informal or semi-structured interviews and observation. In practice such a list includes 3-6 items. Using more than six can be confusing for people.

2. Ask each person to rank the set from "most important" to "least important." This can be done in individual interviews, or it can be done in a group by voting with different markers. It can be done publicly by queuing or on a chalkboard, or privately by voting.

3. Tabulate the results and discuss the priorities given by the group.

Example: preference ranking.

PRIORITY PROBLEMS IN HOUSING

Problem	Interviewees a	b	c	d	e	f	Total	Rank
materials cost	3	2	2	5	3	3	18	III
interest rates	1	1	3	1	2	1	9	I
labour cost	5	4	5	3	5	5	28	V
land cost	2	3	1	2	1	2	11	II
lack of skills	4	5	4	4	4	4	25	IV

1 = most important 5 = least important

7.2 *Pairwise Ranking*

Like preference ranking, pairwise ranking can be used quickly to get a good idea what people think are the most important problems or priorities. It is more useful for interviewing and exploring the reasons why people prefer one possibility over another.

Procedure

1. Choose 3 - 6 of the most important problems or preferences on the basis of previous research, which the people indicated are problems or possible priorities.
   eg. problems related to food production
   - drought
   - pests
   - weeds
   - cost of inputs
   - poor soil

2. Draw pictures or write each of the problems or preferences on separate sheets of cardboard or paper.

3. Show the different problems to the participants until all combinations of pairs have been covered. As each pair is presented:
   - ask which item in each pair is the most serious problem/priority
   - ask the reasons for choosing the item
   - record on a matrix (chart) the answer that is given
   - ask if there is anything about the second choice which is also important. Note this as well.

4. When you have finished the matrix quickly tabulate it and check and check with the interviewee to confirm that he/she agrees with the priorizing. Ask if there are any problems or priorities which have been left out.

5. After doing a number of interviews tabulate the responses from all of them.

Example: Pairwise Ranking Matrix

PROBLEMS INCREASING FOOD PRODUCTION

pairwise matrix

DROUGHT (DR)	PESTS (PE)	WEEDS (WE)	COST OF INPUTS (IN)	POOR SOIL (SO)		Score	Rank
	DR	DR	IN	DR	DROUGHT (DR)	3	b
		PE	IN	WE	PESTS (PE)	2	c
			IN	SO	WEEDS (WE)	0	e
				IN	COST OF INPUTS (IN)	4	a
					POOR SOIL (SO)	1	d

7.3 *Direct Matrix Ranking*

Direct matrix ranking is a way in which various kinds of a thing, e.g. trees, houses etc., can be compared according to different qualities people value. It is very useful when trying to understand and make decisions among alternatives.

Procedure

1. Have people select a class of objects which is important to them, eg., cooking fuels

2. List the most important different kinds or items in that class. Try to keep the list to 6 or fewer. eg., wood, charcoal, kerosene, LP gas.

3. Ask people to discuss and list the most desirable or positive characteristics for the class. eg., the most desirable characteristics of good cooking fuel could include cleanliness, safety, low cost, availability, heat control.

4. Draw the Matrix

5. For each characteristic ask which item in the class is "best", "next best", "worst", "next worst". As you are doing this complete the matrix and tally the results.

6. Ask which criteria is most important, then force a choice by asking if people could only have one kind of item, which would they choose.

Example: Direct Matrix Ranking

COOKING FUEL TYPES

CRITERIA	wood	charcoal	kerosene	lpgas
Cleanliness	4	3	2	1
Cost	1	2	3	4
Accessibility	1	3	2	4
Safety	2	1	3	4
Heat control	3	4	2	1
Total	11	13	12	14
Rank	1	3	2	4

If you could could use only one fuel what would it be?

1 = best 4 = worst

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7.4 Wealth Ranking

Wealth ranking is a way for a community or village to evaluate the relative wealth of members. It allows the community to develop its own indicators of wealth and poverty. Wealth in a community is a very sensitive question hence the method has to be used with confidentiality.

Once the ranking has been done the results can be used to more clearly identify the poor or poorest participant population in a community.

Procedure

1. Make a master list of all the households in the community including the name of the head of the household. Give a number to each household on the list. Note however this procedure is difficult to use in larger or more crowded communities where it is difficult to know or list all households.

2. On a separate card for each household write the name of the household head and the household number.

3. Select 4 - 5 key informants who live in the community and know it very well.

4. Ask each key informant to sort the cards into wealth categories which he or she chooses. You can use small boxes or baskets for this, giving each basket a number for each category.

5. After sorting ask the informant what indicators or criteria he or she used for each category. To maintain confidentiality don't discuss individual households.

6. If key informants each use a different number of categories, calculate the score as a percentage. Record the results

7. For each household total the scores given by each informant and divide the results by the number of informants. Record the results.

8. According the final results arrange the households from richest to poorest. The richest will have low scores, the poorest will have high scores

Example: Wealth Ranking Record

Houshold Number	Scorer A	B	C	D	Average Score	Weatlh Groups
39	20	20	11	25	19	richest
33	20	20	11	25	19	
14	20	20	22	25	22	
40	20	20	22	25	22	
16	20	40	22	25	27	
12	20	20	44	25	27	
18	20	40	33	25	30	
28	20	40	33	25	30	
24	40			25	33	
41	20			50	35	
21	20	40	56	25	35	
46	20	40	56	25	35	
42	20	40	44	50	39	
30	20	60	56	25	40	
8	20	40	56	50	42	
9	20	40	56	50	42	
37	40	40		50	43	
31	40			50	45	
22	20	60	56	50	47	
15	40	40	56	50	47	
27	20	60	56	50	47	
17	20	60	67	50	49	
23	40	60	56	50	52	
36	40	60	56	50	52	
47	40	60	67	50	54	
11	40	60	67	50	54	
20	40	80	67	50	59	
4	40	60	67	75	61	
43	40	60	67	75	61	
6	40	60	67	75	61	
38	20		67	100	62	
19	40	60	78	75	63	
32	40	60	89	75	66	
35	60			75	68	
25	40	80	89	75	71	
10	40		78	100	73	
7	60	80	89	75	76	
45	80	40	100	100	80	
48	60	80	89	100	82	
44		80	67	100	82	
5	60	100	89	100	87	
2	60	100	89	100	87	
13	80	80	100	100	90	
3	60	100	100	100	90	
34	60	100	100	100	90	
26	80	80	100	100	90	
1	80	100	89	100	92	
29	100	100	100	100	100	poorest
# of wealth categories	5	5	9	4	6	

8. TIME AND TREND METHODS

Just as maps give us an idea of what things look like physically, we can also get a picture of what has happened over time. There are many ways to do this. A few of them include time lines (historical profiles), trend lines, and seasonal calendars.

8.1 *Time Lines*

A time line or historical profile is a useful way to initiate a discussion and analysis of the major events and causes of problems in a community. When the history of a village or community is reviewed, common problems can be seen.

Procedure

1. Data for a time line can be drawn from secondary sources, however it is often most useful to use key informants in a community who know the history of that community (older women/men, teachers, elders).

2. Ask informants about key events in the community beginning as far back as they remember. Key areas to ask about could include:
   - settlement
   - migration
   - famines/floods/epidemics
   - positive events - rebuilding dikes, reforestation etc.

3. Record the events. Be sure to record only key events. One or two events each year is sufficient.

4. Discuss the time line with participants to determine if any trends or consistencies are evident. What has been done in the past to cope with problems the community faced?

Example: Historical Profile

HISTORICAL PROFILE - VILLAGE IN EAST AFRICA

1907 - famine

1912 - first missionaries arrive

1923 - railway forces village to move

1927 - land registration and hut taxes imposed

1934 - locusts destroy crops

1947 - road to village built

1948 - men forced to go to South Africa for mines

1960 - independence war divides community

1971 - drought, loss of cattle

1976 - construction of borehole and irrigation

1978 - primary school and clinic opened

1983 - refugee camp opened near village

1985 - cattle improvement scheme introduced

1987 - drought destroys sorghum crop

1988 - famine, fires destroy forest

1989 - clinic and school close for lack of funds

8.2 *Trend Lines*

A Trend line or time trend can show changes over time. There are an almost unlimited number of variables which can be included: For example, trend lines could show changes in:

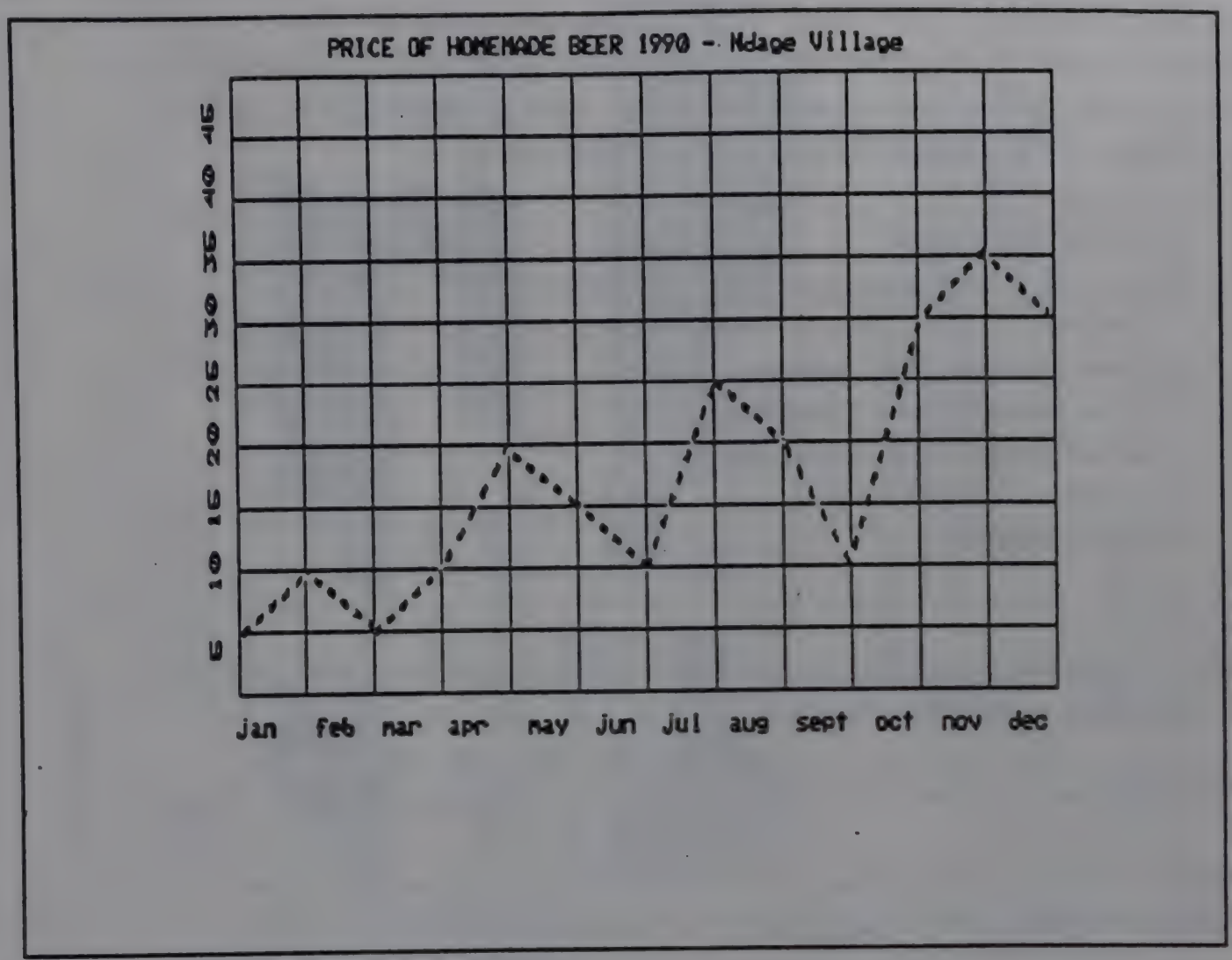
- crop yields
- number of livestock
- land under cultivation
- land prices
- rents
- distance to fuel, water etc.
- time taken to gather fuel, water
- size of population
- population
- nutrition
- rainfall

Procedure

A very rough qualitative trend line can be drawn using key informants. However, it is usually better to gather data from secondary sources first then ask key informants and participants to cross check and change it where they feel there is a mistake.

During implementation of a program trend lines for different aspects of the program can be maintained and used to monitor progress and effectiveness.

Example: Trend Line



8.3 *Seasonal Calendars*

The seasonal calendar is a way of showing on one chart, a number of activities throughout the year. By showing them on one chart participants are able to identify times in the year (eg. just before harvest) when people are most vulnerable and problems are greatest. Many things can be related on a seasonal calendar.

- seasons
- climate conditions
- kinds of crops grown, harvested etc.
- livestock cycles, birth, weaning etc.
- labour demand for men and women
- market conditions - prices
- income generating activities
- income and debt levels
- feasts, holidays

Procedure

1. Draw an outline calendar, on the ground or on paper. Use the local calendar which people use.

2. Have information available from secondary sources and interviews

3. First ask what are the four busiest months for a given activity. Mark these on the calendar with suitable symbols.

4. Determine the least busy months and mark these on the calendar

5. Determine the four "middle" months and mark these.

6. Do each of the above for each of the variables and combine on the same calendar

7. Cross check with other data during field work

8. Discuss with participants during and after preparation of the calendar. What is the relationship among each of the variables or activities?

Figure 6. Seasonal Calendar From Mbusyani

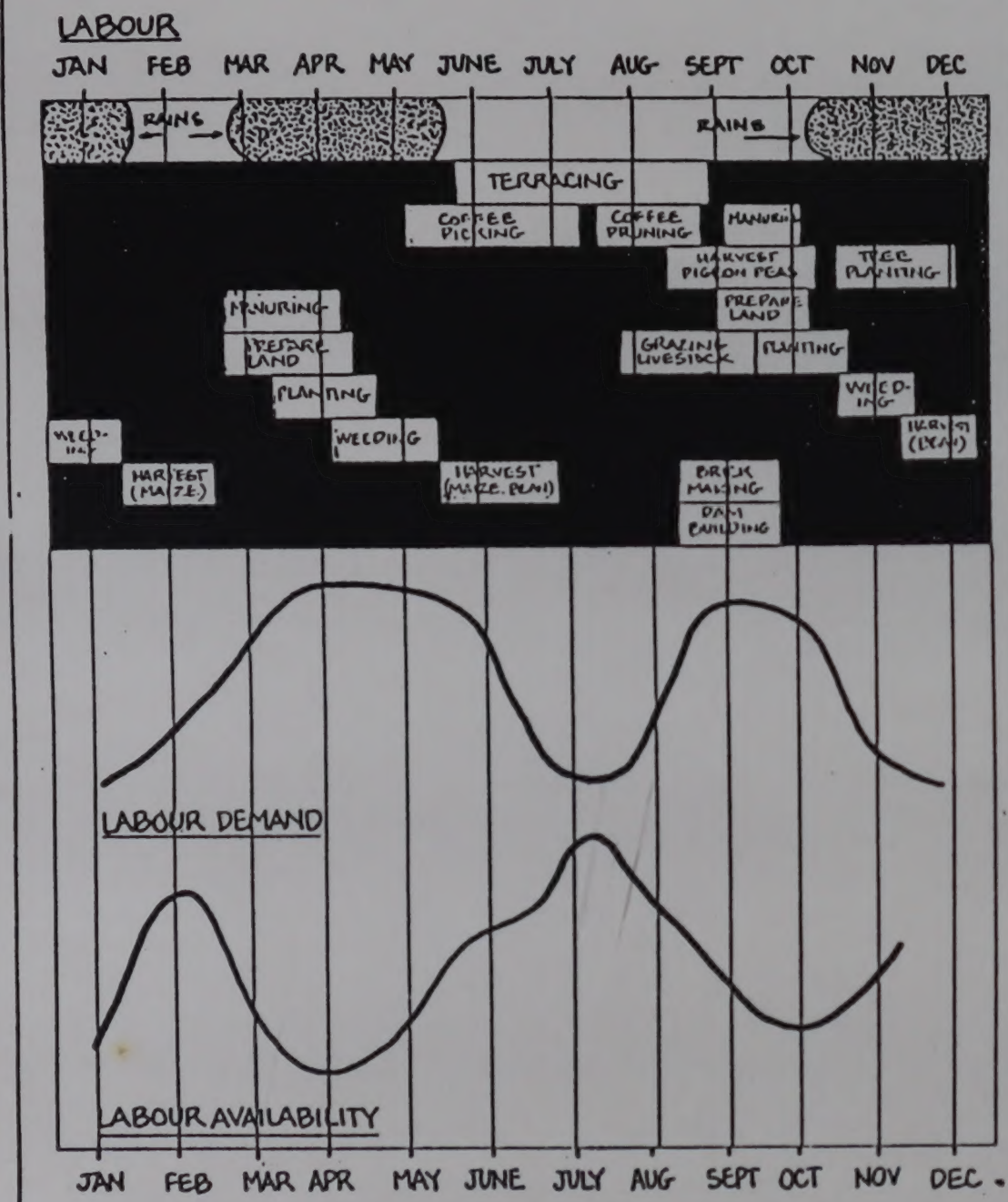
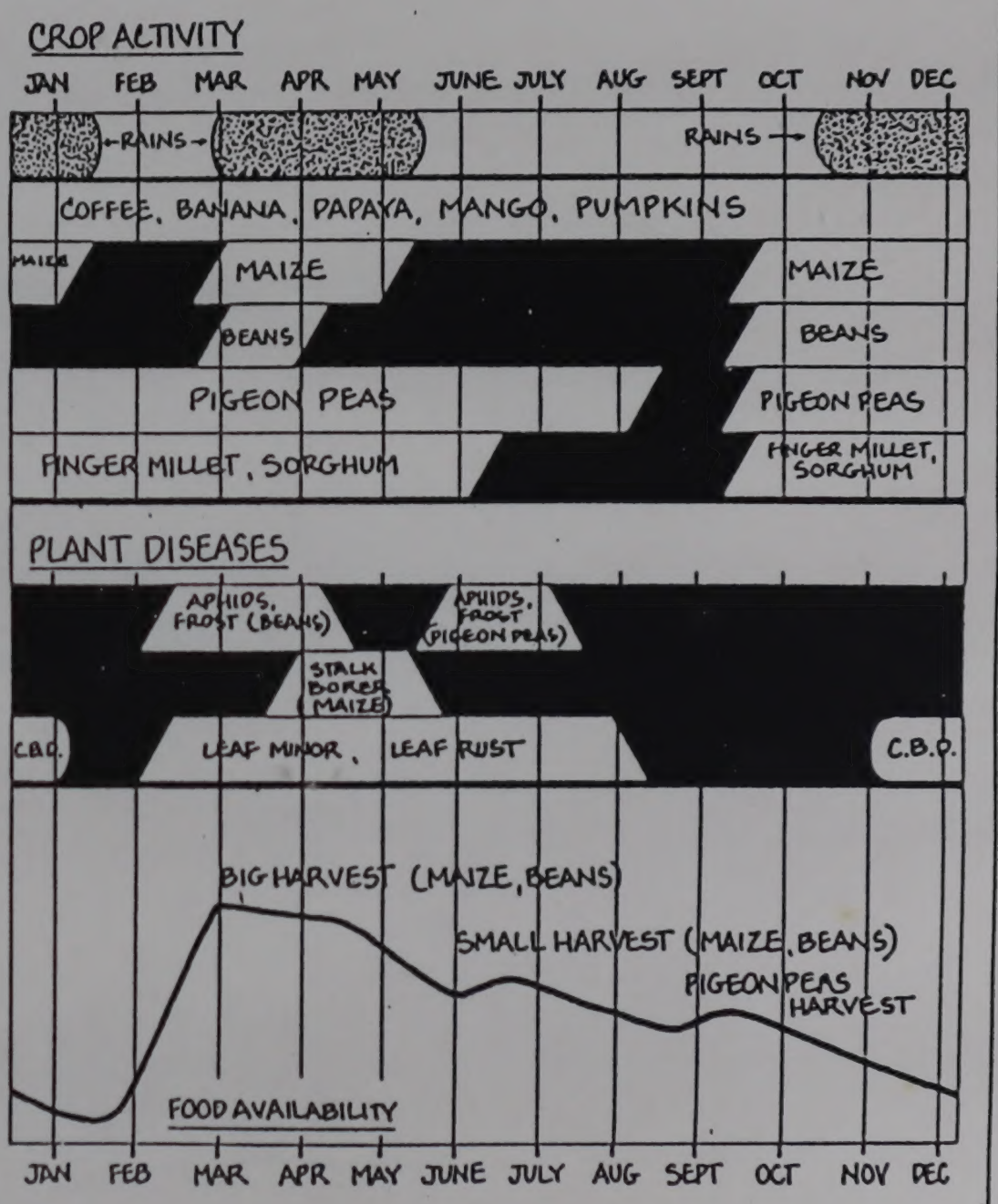



Figure 6. Seasonal Calendar From Mbusyani (Continued)